

Bathymetry, depth to magnetic basement, and sediment thickness estimates from aerogeophysical data over the Western Weddell Basin

John L. LaBrecque¹

Jet Propulsion Laboratory, Pasadena, California, USA

Marta E. Ghidella

Instituto Antartico Argentino, Buenos Aires, Argentina

Abstract. We estimated the bathymetry and sediment thickness of a remote and difficult to access portion of the Antarctic continental margin using aerogeophysical surveying techniques. The U. S., Argentina, Chile aerogeophysical survey collected magnetic and gravity data over the basins surrounding the Antarctic Peninsula. Forty-seven of these flight lines were used to estimate bathymetry and depth to magnetic basement for the western Weddell Basin. A wave number technique was applied to individual magnetic anomaly profiles in an automated fashion to obtain estimates of the depth to magnetic basement. The bathymetric estimates were obtained by admittance inversions of the gravity field. The results were then gridded at a 40-km interval for the region 64°W, 44°W, 73°S, and 62°S. Bathymetric estimates and depth to magnetic basement estimates were differenced at each grid point to obtain a regional estimate of the thickness of nonmagnetic overburden (assumed to be sediment). Subsequent spot measurements of topography in the estimated region of the continental margin generally agree to about 52 meters. The estimated magnetic basement deepens from the Antarctic Peninsula margin eastward to a maximum of 10-12 km near 54°W. We also postulate the existence of two moderately large basins flanking the eastward continuation of the Jason Peninsula. Farther east, the basement steps upward, with a correspondent thinning of the sedimentary layer. Along the east coast of the peninsula, results agree well with seismic studies on James Ross Island and magnetotelluric studies on Marambio Island and the Larsen Nunatak, as well as the British Antarctic Survey basement estimates from aeromagnetic data. This study further demonstrates the utility of combined application of airborne and satellite geophysical techniques in the study of structure and tectonic evolution of continental margins and marine basins.

Introduction

The basins surrounding the Antarctic Peninsula compose one of the most inaccessible regions of Earth. Heavy year round ice cover and frequent and severe storms combine to make exploration of this region extremely difficult and time consuming. Consequently, bathymetric maps of the region are based on very limited data. A great deal of interpretation based on the geologic intuition of the cartographer is required to turn this sparse data set into a regional map. This uncertainty in the structure and location of the continental margins is problematic from the viewpoint of basin circulation studies, plate tectonic reconstructions, regional rifting models, and exploration planning. The U. S., Argentina, Chile (USAC) program conducted an extensive aerogeophysical survey (Figure 1) to determine the structure and development of the continental margins and basins adjoining the Antarctic Peninsula and southern South America. The USAC flights employed a long -

range P-3 Orion provided by the U.S. Naval Research Laboratory Detachment at Patuxent River Naval Air Station, Maryland. The aircraft was equipped with a gravimeter, proton precession magnetometer, as well as Global Positioning System (GPS), Omega, and inertial navigation systems. GPS navigation now permits the use of long-range aircraft without local navigation networks which significantly improves the effectiveness of aerogravity surveys over remote regions. Aerogravity technology has been described by Brozena [1984] and by Brozena and Peters [1988]. USAC successfully carried out the first operational long-range aerogravity survey and the first such survey over an ice-covered continental margin [Brozena *et al.*, 1987].

The gravity and magnetic data sets are our best source of information concerning the regional structure. Figure 2 shows that prior to the USAC survey there were few geophysical data for the Antarctic Peninsula margins. The data collected by the long-range P-3 Orion complement existing data sets such as the compilation of the available gravity, magnetic, and seismic data for the circum-Peninsula basins of the Ocean Margin Drilling (OMD) Region 13 Atlas [LaBrecque *et al.*, 1986] as well as the aeromagnetic surveys of Britain [Renner *et al.*, 1985] and the former Soviet Union [Maslov, 1980] which have gathered aeromagnetic data over nonmarine portions of West Antarctica.

We combined USAC aerogravity [Brozena *et al.*, 1987] and Geosat gravity [Haxby, 1988; Haxby and Hayes, 1991; Marks and McAdoo, 1992] data sets to increase the coverage of the western Weddell Basin (Plate 1a), although gaps still remain in the gravity coverage. In a similar manner we developed a gridded magnetic anomaly field using the USAC and other available databases as shown in Plate 1b. Bell *et al.* [1990] suggested that the strong linear north-south striking gravity gradient along the eastern margin of the Antarctic Peninsula in Plate 1a could correspond to the shelf edge. This implies significant bathymetric errors in compilation of General Bathymetric Chart of the Oceans (GEBCO) map 5:16 [Johnson *et al.*, 1983] as well as most of the digital bathymetric data sets of the region which are derived from this cartography.

The western margin of the Weddell Basin developed in Middle to Late Jurassic time as evidenced by the seafloor spreading pattern [LaBrecque and Barker, 1981; LaBrecque *et al.*, 1986] (Figure 3) and the observation of Jurassic shallow water marine sediments on the western Weddell margin, the Falkland Plateau [Ludwig *et al.*, 1980], and the Magallanes Basin [Nalland *et al.*, 1974]. The Jurassic and younger sedimentary accumulation on the western margin of the Weddell has been termed the Larsen Basin [Macdonald *et al.*, 1988] and is considered to have significant hydrocarbon potential [St. John, 1986; Behrendt, 1990]. The Larsen sedimentary sequence is floored by the Jurassic Nordenskjold Formation and extends through to the mid-Tertiary with an apparent hiatus or unconformity in the Early Cretaceous [Rinaldi, 1982; Farquharson, 1982, 1983; del Valle and Fourcade, 1986; Olivero *et al.*, 1986; Elliot, 1988; Whitham and Storey, 1989] which is dominated by alternating radiolarian rich mudstones and ash beds laid down in euxinic conditions. In this study we used the USAC aerogeophysical

data set to determine the bathymetry of the western Weddell margin and sedimentary thickness of the Larsen Basin and the western Weddell Basin.

Revision of the Regional Bathymetry

One method of estimating bathymetry in an uncharted region is to determine the relationship between gravity and bathymetry or the admittance function in a nearby region where both the gravity and bathymetry have been mapped and then apply that admittance function to the unknown region. *Dorman and Lewis [1970]*, *Lewis and Dorman [1970]* and *McKenzie and Bowin [1976]* have shown that the relationship between gravity and bathymetry can be approximated by a linear function of the form

$$G(k) = Z(k)B(k) \quad (1)$$

where

- $G(k)$ Fourier transform of the free air gravity anomaly;
- $z(k)$ admittance function;
- $B(k)$ Fourier transform of the bathymetry;
- k wavenumber.

When the bathymetric relief is small and varies about an average depth, $Z(k)$ is real and independent of $B(k)$. The admittance function has been used to study the mechanism of isostatic compensation and the elastic properties of the lithosphere [*Walcott, 1970, 1972; Steckler and Watts, 1978; Watts and Daly, 1981*].

An estimate of bathymetry can be determined by solving for $B(k)$ given an estimate of $Z(k)$ derived from an area where both $G(k)$ and $B(k)$ are known. The admittance function may vary considerably from one location to another and can be difficult to estimate accurately.

Variations are induced by differences in the geologic structure and geologic history from one region to another. For example, a passive continental margin which is morphologically uniform along its extent can exhibit a variation in the admittance function along strike if the isostatic response to sediment loading varies along the margin. A difference in isostatic response along the margin could develop if a major influx in sedimentation occurred in one region when the lithosphere was relatively thin and weak while at another location major sedimentation occurred several million years later over stronger and thicker lithosphere. For this reason we must determine the admittance function from regions which share a common geologic history. Measurement noise, particularly in the gravity database, will also contribute to errors in $Z(k)$.

Most importantly, the strong relief of a continental slope and the use of a discrete Fourier transform result in an ill-behaved and "spiky" complex admittance function in contrast to the smooth linear and real admittance function for smoothly varying low relief topography. *Karner and Watts [1982]* reduced the effect of the poles and zeroes in the individual admittance spectra by averaging several profiles from regions with varying widths of the continental slope using

$$Z(k) = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N G_n(k) B_n^*(k)}{\sum_{n=1}^N B_n(k) B_n^*(k)} \quad (2.)$$

where N is number of profiles averaged in the ensemble and the asterisk signifies the complex conjugate.

Following this technique, we selected as a reference area the northwestern Weddell Basin where bathymetry has been relatively well measured by satellite-navigated icebreakers [Keller *et al.*, 1985]. Opening models by Labrecque *et al.* [1986] and Grunow *et al.* [1987] suggest that the western Weddell margin evolved in a uniform manner from north to south. Five profiles were extracted from the gridded gravity and bathymetry of this reference area within the latitude bounds of 65°S and 66°S. An average of the admittance function was estimated from the five profiles. This estimate of $Z(k)$ was then applied to the length of the western Weddell Basin using the combined aerogravity and Geosat measurements. The resulting bathymetric estimate proved less than satisfactory and belied our notions of realistic shelf structure because long-wavelength gravity components were amplified by the admittance function into large basinlike structures on the continental shelf.

In Figure 4 we compare the observed admittance from our reference section to the theoretical linear model for various elastic thicknesses. The observed admittance function averaged from five reference profiles exhibits much higher variability in amplitude than the models which are derived for lithosphere at mean water depths of 2.5 and 10 km. A theoretical admittance function derived for a mean water depth of 10 km and an elastic thickness of 40 km appear to match the observed admittance best. Although an elastic thickness of 40 km for the Jurassic margin is reasonable, this match is highly suspect given the steplike nature of continental margin and the fact that the sediment-water interface is nowhere greater than 5 km near the western Weddell margin.

The necessary conditions for the linearity of the admittance function are not well satisfied at continental margins. The Weddell margin topography can be approximated by a step function, with an amplitude of 4 km. The large asymmetric relief of the continental slope induces nonlinear effects in the gravity field. Karner and Watts [1982] suggested that nonlinear effects at a continental margin should cancel out when averaging is performed over several profiles with different slopes; however, they used a linear gravity model to derive the admittance relationship.

If a nonlinear approach to modeling the anomaly field is used, the admittance function for the synthetic margin (the appendix) has a nonzero phase, whose asymptotic behavior is controlled by the factor $e^{i(kT-\alpha)}/\sin(kT)$, where k is the wavenumber, T is the half width of the continental slope, and α is the angular complement of the continental slope and is slightly smaller than $\pi/2$. The $\sin(kT)$ factor limits the phase angle to absolute values less than $\pi/2$ (Figure A1) and induces π discontinuities at kT values which are integer multiples of π , except for $k=0$, where the phase tends to zero. If the π discontinuities are removed (which is equivalent to changes of sign in the admittance function for sectors for which

$m\pi < kT < (m+1)\pi$, with m odd), then the resulting phase will be a straight line with slope equal to kT for large wavenumbers. A linear fit to the phase slope will provide an estimate of the average width of the continental slope. Variations in the phase of the admittance function will also be induced by incomplete compensation of the surface topography. Averaging several profiles with different slopes and local isostatic compensation will reduce the phase excursions, but the slope in admittance phase will remain. A shift in the true position of topography with respect to expected topography will also induce a linear phase shift.

If the Fourier transforms of gravity and bathymetry are linearly related, then the phase of the admittance function is zero. However, the phase of the observed admittance functions in Figure 5 vary strongly with both 2π and π discontinuities. The 2π discontinuities are easily explained, but the π discontinuities are more problematic. If we remove the π and 2π discontinuities, then we observe linear trends which are related to the continental slope as discussed above.

Figure 5a is one of the profiles used to calculate the reference admittance (latitude 65°50'), and Figure 5b is a more southern profile at latitude 68°40' where the GEBCO topography is suspect. The plot at the left top of each figure shows the unwrapped phase, which is the spectral phase obtained when 2π as well as π discontinuities are removed from the $+\pi/-\pi$ bounded phase (left, middle). Two linear least squares fits were made to these curves: one from $k=0$ to $k=0.05 \text{ km}^{-1}$ that is for relatively low wavenumbers, and the other from $k=0.05 \text{ km}^{-1}$ to $k=0.2 \text{ km}^{-1}$. The corresponding slope values are written on the plots. Figure 5b has a much steeper slope for the unwrapped phase, which indicates a difference in the relative position of gravity and bathymetry of about 128 km between the two profiles. Also note that the amplitude spectra both strongly vary and do not decay with wavenumber.

In order to better understand the departures between our observed admittance and that of the theoretical admittance functions, we examined the analytical expression for the admittance of an unsedimented continental margin in Airy isostatic compensation. The details are explained in the appendix.

The linear admittance model and the studies of *Karner and Watts* [1982] suggest that the amplitude of the admittance function should decay for large wavenumbers, while both the analytic results (in the appendix) and our single profile admittance functions indicate that the admittance amplitude does not decay with increasing wavenumber. The decay in Figure 4a suggests that the average depth of the margin should be 10 km yet this would require that half of the basin is below 20 km, which is over 3 times deeper than most old ocean basins. The amplitude of the analytical admittance for the compensated synthetic margin behaves like the linear admittance function for low wavenumbers. At intermediate and large wavenumbers the admittance has poles at the zeros of $\sin(kT)$ (Figure A 1) and does not diminish in amplitude.

Destructive interference in the averaging process might smooth the amplitude spectrum of the admittance; however, the limited number of independent profiles available to us was not sufficient to nullify the effect of poles and zeroes in

amplitude spectrum (Figure 5a). A comparison of admittance functions derived from individual and averaged profiles indicated that the admittance smoothing was small and sometimes unnoticeable. We also found that observed admittance has minima in addition to the maxima as shown in Figure A1. Our experimental modeling indicated that these minima can result from an imperfect isostatic compensation. When compensation is exact, the gravity and topography extrema are coincident which smoothes the amplitude spectrum of the admittance (Figure A1).

The inversion of equation (1) to solve for the bathymetry is difficult even in cases where the linear approach holds nicely because the admittance tends to zero for low wavenumbers whose energy dominates the spectrum of continental margins. The oscillatory nature of the admittance amplitude makes the inversion even more difficult. Finally, we have shown that in the Fourier domain, gravity is a nonlinear function of bathymetry over continental margins.

The admittance still contains significant information on the shape of the bathymetry and its compensation. The admittance phase appears to retain considerable information on the relative position of the topography and gravity structure at the shelf break as well as information on the shelf slope.

Given the apparent robustness of the admittance phase estimates compared to the admittance amplitude estimates, we attempted a second technique as suggested by G.D. Karner. We calculated the admittance functions for several gravity and bathymetric profiles in the southern sector and substituted the phase component from the northern reference admittance. This is approximately equivalent to repositioning the topographic structure of a selected profile according to the relationship of gravity and bathymetry in the reference profile. The method can be summarized as follows.

If the reference admittance is

$$Z_r(k) = A_r(k)e^{i\theta_r(k)} \quad (3)$$

and the admittance of the profile to be adjusted is

$$Z_s(k) = A_s(k)e^{i\theta_s(k)}, \quad (4)$$

then the new admittance of the adjusted profile is

$$\boxed{Z_n(k) = A_s(k)e^{i\theta_r(k)}} \quad (5)$$

and the new adjusted topography is

$$B_n(k) = \frac{G_s(k)}{Z_n(k)} = B_s(k)e^{i[\theta_s(k) - \theta_r(k)]}. \quad (6)$$

We applied the correction of equation (6) to 21 profiles in a 350 km latitudinal band from 66°S to 69.5°S. Because of sparse (three profiles) gravity coverage (Plate 1a) and the apparent curvature of the margin we did not extend our inversion farther south. Instead, we interpolated the bathymetry from 70°S to its intersection with the southern

continental slope near 72°S and 53°W which is a better explored region. The estimation of bathymetry along the margin south of 69.5° S and west of 53°W was done by assigning a bathymetric value of 500 m to 10 points along the gravity maximum and regridding the bathymetry using the eastern GEBCO bathymetry and the western revised bathymetry in the area described above.

Plate 2 displays the newly estimated bathymetry as a contoured color image. The GEBCO bathymetry is shown as red dashed thousand-meter contours. If the structure and gravity/topography relation is the same as for the northern Weddell margin, then the shelf edge is located along the gravity maximum and the GEBCO shelf edge for the western Weddell Basin is in error by as much as 100 km eastward along the southwestern margin of the basin. At the time of this writing, the *AnZone* [1989] program (which was provided with our revised bathymetry) began to return bathymetric data from a drifting ice station and helicopter stations along the continental slope of the western Weddell [Gordon *et al.*, 1993a,b]. The results are in excellent agreement with our bathymetric predictions. Of 127 soundings distributed over the region, the mean difference between predicted and observed topography averaged less than 80 m with a standard deviation of 52 m. A maximum error occurred at 70.3°S and 55°W, where the gravity field displays a strong negative seaward gradient. The estimated topography was 2406 m, while the measured depth is 1130 m, suggesting a very steep continental slope to the east of this point.

Depth to Magnetic Basement

Figure 6 displays the tectonic interpretation of the magnetic anomaly field for the western Weddell shown in Plate 1a. The tectonic pattern has been derived from previous studies [LaBrecque and Barker, 1981; LaBrecque *et al.*, 1986, 1989] and has been extended using the USAC magnetic anomaly database. Generally, the magnetic anomaly pattern is subdued with anomalies rarely exceeding 50 nT in amplitude. Strong magnetic anomalies are located over the Antarctic Peninsula and the Bransfield Straits as well as the Orion Anomaly (named after the J-3 Orion aircraft which mapped the anomaly) in the southern Weddell. The source of the Orion Anomaly is likely a volcanic pile at the ocean-continent boundary of the southern margin of the Weddell Basin.

Lineaments of magnetic anomalies strike northeast and northwest in the deeper portions of the basin. The northeasterly anomalies have been interpreted as the traces of fracture zones, while the northwesterly anomalies are tilted, conjugate seafloor spreading magnetic anomalies [LaBrecque *et al.*, 1986, 1989]. The oldest crust in the Weddell Basin is likely Jurassic in age, and borders the continental margins. The crust becomes younger to the north and east, reaching Oligocene age at the Endurance Collision zone. During the evolution of the western Weddell Basin the seafloor spreading direction has changed nearly 90° with respect to the peninsula, resulting in a large age contrast at a shear zone near 65°S and 47°W. Evidence for this shear zone lies in the

interpretation of the magnetic anomaly pattern of seafloor spreading anomalies within the basin.

We have attempted to derive crustal structure from depth to magnetic basement estimates. We used individual flight lines because although the USAC flight line density of 36 km is adequate for regional anomaly identification, the analysis of a gridded database for depth to magnetic source requires nearly an order of magnitude greater data density.

The profiles were analyzed assuming that the distribution of sources is constant perpendicular to the flight path. This assumption of two-dimensionality in the source distribution might introduce some bias toward deeper magnetic basement estimates. *Shure and Parker* [1981] have shown that linear sampling of a three-dimensional magnetization distribution can introduce the spurious amplification of long-wavelength spectral components through strike aliasing. In depth to basement measurements this will produce erroneous deeper basement estimates. Most profiles in the USAC aerosurvey were flown orthogonal to regional trends (northwest or northeast) in the magnetic anomaly pattern; therefore we expect that this effect will be minimized in the average.

W.C. investigated several methods of estimating depth to magnetic basement including statistically based spectral estimations as described by *Spector and Grant* [1970] and *Treitel et al.* [1971] and high-resolution techniques such as Werner deconvolution [*Hartman et al.*, 1971], analytic signal analysis [*Nabighian*, 1972], and the composite method of Phillips [1975]. Automated analysis was deemed necessary to process the large amount of data involved and to minimize the potential of bias in interpretation.

The most successful technique was a variation of the spectral analysis method. The technique assumes that magnetic basement is composed of a randomly distributed layer of magnetic sources of thickness T at a depth d below the level of observation. The magnetization is assumed constant in direction but variable in intensity. The Fourier transform of the resultant anomaly field [*Schouten and McCamy*, 1972] is

$$F(k) = 2\pi CM(k)e^{-kd}(1 - e^{-kT})e^{-i\phi} \quad (7)$$

where

- k scalar wavenumber;
- d depth to the top of the source layer;
- $M(k)$ Fourier transform of the magnetization distribution;
- C amplitude term which is a function of the magnetization and ambient field directions;

* T thickness of the magnetized layer;

- ϕ phase term, function of ambient and remnant field directions relative to the strike of two-dimensional body.

The power spectrum of $F(k)$ is

$$S(k) = Ae^{-2kd}(1 - e^{-kT})^2 \quad (8)$$

where A is a constant. If $T \gg d$, then

$$\ln[S(k)] = -\ln(A) - 2kd. \quad (9)$$

We see from (9) that the log power spectrum of the anomaly field falls off as a linear function of wavenumber. Estimates of depth to source therefore can be made by a least squares fit of (9) to the power spectrum of the anomaly profile. As in all inversion schemes, several practical considerations will introduce errors. First, the shorter wavelengths may contain measurement noise such as ambient field fluctuations, instrument, and navigation noise. Second, the assumption that the thickness of the magnetic source is greater than depth may not always hold, such as over oceanic crust where estimates of magnetic source thickness vary from 5 to 0.5 km, while the depth to source may vary between 2.5 km and 7 km. Last, departures from the assumption of two-dimensional sources will increase the depth estimates.

The linear fit of (9) to the observed log power spectrum is carried out in a band between wavenumbers $k_l < k < k_u$. k_l is set to 0.018, a wavelength of 333 km, while k_u is defined by estimating the mean noise level and its standard error at short wavelengths. k_u is located at the intersection between the power spectrum at longer wavelengths and the upper limit of the estimation band which is the mean power plus twice the standard error at the noise floor. Estimates were made from a 250 km moving window. The window overlapped at 10-km intervals. Therefore the same point along the profile is "visible" for 25 estimates of depth. After removing the linear trend and mean value, zeroes were appended to the windowed data for a total spectral length of 1024.

We found that the stability in the depth estimates was improved by estimating a source thickness. A value of $T = 2$ km was used for the source thickness in accordance with the approximate thickness of oceanic layer 2. We tested the technique on a synthetic profile generated by sources of varying depth and source thicknesses. The depth to source was varied in a sequence of steps from 5 km to 1 km. The estimates of source depth for the synthetic profiles were accurate to about 2.0% in the absence of measurement noise.

The spectral technique was applied to over 180,000 km of flight lines. Estimates of depth to magnetic basement were obtained at 10-km intervals along these flight lines. The region was covered with approximately four depth estimates per thousand square kilometers. The depth estimates were corrected for aircraft altitude and averaged within a 40-km grid interval. One check on the accuracy of the gridded estimates was to compare the estimated source depth in the Drake Passage where seismic data and well identified seafloor spreading anomalies permit a reliable identification of the magnetic source depth of between 4 and 5 km below sea level. Our estimated source depths in the Drake Passage were within 20% of these values. The results of our method also compared very well (< 1 km) with the Werner deconvolution estimates for the Bransfield region of Parra and Yanez [1988], who used a combined USAC and Chilean aerosurvey data set [Parra et al., 1984] to estimate depth to magnetic basement.

Figure 7 displays a contour map of the depth to magnetic basement. Basement generally dips eastward from the shoreline of the Antarctic Peninsula with a rapid increase in depth which averages 9-14 km along a southwest trending trough whose northern terminus is at 64°S, 51°W. This

trough lies well west of the shelf edge as mapped by GEBCO, which could indicate either a major sedimentary basin within the margin or, as we believe, an error in the GEBCO bathymetry. The magnetic basement map indicates a shoaling of basement which trends southeast from the Jason Peninsula which divides the western shelf into two basins. We have named the structure, the Jason Horst.

Plate 2 indicates the presence of bathymetric depressions over the northern and southern subbasins. Over the oceanic crust (refer to Plate 2) the basement tends to shoal as the crust becomes younger. Note that near the shear zone of the northwestern Weddell Basin, the basement is deep (10-11 km) over the Jurassic crust and shallower (< 9 km) over the Cretaceous and younger [to the east of the shear zone]. The near shallow crust is still quite deep for the youngest crust which should be Oligocene to Eocene age, although sediment accumulations may be depressing the crust in this area. This crustal shoaling is also coincident with a strong gravity gradient in the Geosat gravity field (Plate 1a) and strong gradients in the magnetic field (Plate 1b).

Regional Sediment Thickness Map

In the final step we subtracted the revised bathymetry from the depth to magnetic basement in order to estimate the thickness of the nonmagnetic overburden. In order to discriminate between sediment thickness as estimated by seismic and drilling results and the use of modified depth to basement estimates in this work we will refer to thickness of nonmagnetic overburden (NOB) as our estimates of sediment thickness.

The thickness of nonmagnetic overburden (Plate 3) increases from approximately 3-4 km at the eastern shoreline of the Antarctic Peninsula (similar to the estimates of Renner *et al.* [1985]) to about 4-6 km at the edge of the shelf. Seaward of the shelf edge the nonmagnetic overburden increases dramatically to 8-12 km. Labrecque *et al.* [1989] considered this region to be the site of earliest rifting in the Weddell Basin during the Middle Jurassic. The eastward increase in nonmagnetic overburden is also observed by the only seismic results recorded in the eastern Peninsula by Keller *et al.* [1989], who reported a 4° eastward slope in the Mesozoic and younger sediments on James Ross island and sediment thickness on the order of 4-5 km. Magnetotelluric experiments [del Vane *et al.*, 1988] report a 6.7-km sediment layer on Seymour Island, in fair agreement with our estimates. The study also presents results over the Robertson island region (near 65°S, 59.5°W), where they find an anticline in the basement flanked by sediments up to 4 km thick.

The nonmagnetic overburden shown in Figure 8 indicates a 2-km change in NOB thickness which correlates to a 2-km change in depth to basement across the paleoshear zone. The abrupt age contrast and the resulting bathymetric relief predicted from this age offset likely generated a barrier to eastward sediment transport and ponded sediment west of the shear zone. Grikurov *et al.* [1990] gathered a multichannel seismic profile across this portion of the margin and the proposed shear zone, and they report sediment thicknesses

which correspond to our NOB estimates. *Kavoun and Vinnikovskaya* [1994] compiled a depth to acoustic basement map of the northwestern Weddell from seismic measurements of the R/V *Geolog Nalivkin*. The compilation generally agrees with that presented in this study despite the difference in techniques and resolution. Acoustic basement might generally be expected to lie above magnetic basement in studies of this sort. The map of acoustic basement also shows a 2 to 3 km westward deepening in acoustic basement across the proposed paleo shear zone between 64°S to 65°S along the 312°E meridian.

The NHRCS also locate several basins along the shelf edge which should be of Jurassic age. The basins are generally located in areas between the intersection of southwest-northeast striking magnetic anomalies which we have interpreted to be fracture zone trends and the shelf edge. In the southwestern portion of the region (near 71°S and 60°W), we observe a broad deepening of magnetic basement and a consequent thickening of nonmagnetic overburden in the southwestern Weddell Basin near 70°S and 60°W. This may be a northward continuation of the 10-km-deep basin [*Kadmina et al.*, 1983] which extends northward beneath the Ronne Ice Shelf. *Maslanyj and Storey* [1990] also report basement depths of the order of 10-12 km surrounding the Haag Nunataks at the base of the Antarctic Peninsula.

Larsen Rift

González-Ferrán [1983] has suggested the existence of the Larsen Rift in the region of the James Ross island based upon the observation of recent surface volcanism. We have not observed magnetic anomaly patterns or significant magnetic anomalies in the region of the proposed Larsen Rift. Our solutions of depth to basement in the region show no significant change in depth to magnetic basement. Such anomalies would be expected from accumulations of volcanic material or major disruptions in basement. The absence of such magnetic anomalies are not sufficient in themselves to disprove the existence of the Larsen Rift. However, they do indicate that if the rifting is presently active, then volcanic activity is in a very nascent stage.

Conclusion

The aerogravity and aeromagnetic data gathered by the USAC aerosurvey over the western Weddell Basin and the available Geosat gravity field have been combined and analyzed to produce bathymetric, depth to basement, and estimated sediment thickness estimates for a difficult to access region of the Antarctic margin. We have shown that the phase information from an averaged admittance function can be used to derive bathymetric estimates from the gravity anomaly field at passive continental margins. Location of the shelf edge in the western Weddell Basin has been relocated as much as 100 km west of the location mapped in the GIBCO map series. The integrated analysis of revised bathymetry and the depth to magnetic basement indicate an eastward thickening of the sediment overburden in the western Weddell Basin and a major

accumulation of sediment at the shelf edge. This study demonstrates the utility of long-range aerogeophysical surveying in remote areas.

APPENDIX A: Analytic Expressions for Admittance of Continental Margins

In the following, we derive the analytic expression for the gravity field and admittance of a simple continental margin which transforms from shallow water to oceanic depth w along a linear continental slope whose width is $2T$. The Fourier transform of the gravity anomaly due to the bathymetric interface of this model is

$$G_s(k) = -\frac{2\pi i G(\rho_w - \rho_c)}{k^2} \cos(\alpha) e^{-i\alpha} [e^{ikT} - e^{ikT} e^{-kw}] \quad (A1)$$

where

- k wavenumber;
- G universal gravity constant;
- ρ_w water density;
- ρ_c crust density;
- α angle between the continental slope and the vertical such that

$$\tan(\alpha) = \frac{2T}{w} \quad (A2)$$

Adding the contribution of the mantle assuming Airy isostatic compensation we obtain the Fourier transform of the total gravity anomaly over the model continental margin

$$G_p(k) = \frac{2\pi i G(\rho_c - \rho_m)}{k^2} \cos(\beta) \cdot e^{i\beta} e^{-k(w+t)} [e^{ikT} - e^{ikT} e^{-kw}] \quad (A3)$$

where

- w' Upper bound of the Moho relief corresponding to an ocean depth W ;
- t oceanic crust thickness assuming local mass compensation at depth T , the base of the continental crust;
- ρ_m mantle density;
- β angle between the mantle slope and the vertical determined by

$$\tan(\beta) = \frac{2T}{w'} \quad (A4)$$

Following *Karner and Watts [1982]*, the bathymetry is defined as the scaled convolution of a sigum function and a rectangular window of width T so that

$$B(x) = -\frac{d}{2T} \text{sgn}(x) * \text{win}(x) \quad (A5)$$

where the asterisk signifies convolution, x is the coordinate along the profile, and d is the median water depth. The Fourier transform of the bathymetry is then

$$B(k) = -\frac{2id \sin(kT)}{k^2 T} \quad (A6)$$

We can now write the equations for the admittance

$$\begin{aligned}
Z(k) &= \frac{G(k)}{B(k)} = \frac{G_s(k) + G_p(k)}{B(k)} \\
&= \frac{\pi GT}{d \sin(kT)} [(\rho_c - \rho_w) \cos(\alpha) e^{-i\alpha} (e^{ikT} - e^{-ikT} e^{-kw}) \\
&\quad + (\rho_m - \rho_c) \cos(\beta) e^{i\beta} e^{-k(w+T)} (e^{ikT} e^{-kw'} - e^{-ikT})]
\end{aligned}
\tag{A7}$$

$Z(k)$ in (A7) decreases smoothly to zero for low wave numbers, a necessary condition for this being the exact compensation of the topography. For very large wave numbers (short wavelengths) or deep compensation depths, $G_p(k)$ or the gravity effect of compensation vanishes, and the spectrum of the admittance is controlled by the factor $e^{i(kT-\alpha)}/\sin(kT)$ which is the effect of the surface topography. The term $\sin(kT)$ with its zeroes at $kT = m\pi$, m being an integer, limits the absolute value of the phase to less than $\pi/2$. Note that α (equation (A2)) is a little smaller than $\pi/2$, with typical values of w and T being 4 km and 100 km, respectively.

Figure A1 displays the analytical admittance for the synthetic margin with $w = 4$ km, $T = 100$ km, and $T_c = 32$ km. Density values are 1030, 2800, and 3400 kg/m³ for ρ_w , ρ_c , and ρ_m , respectively. We can see that the absolute value of the admittance has peaks for $k = m\pi/T$, except for $k = 0$; we can also see that the amplitude **never** decays, reaching a constant value upon which the peaks are superimposed. We have also plotted the "unwrapped" or pseudophase which is the phase with the π discontinuities removed. We have fitted two straight lines to this pseudophase, dividing the k range in two sectors: $k < 0.05$ km⁻¹ and $k > 0.05$ km⁻¹. We see that the linear fit for high wavenumbers is 101 km, very close to the real value of T which is 100 km. The phase spectrum appears to be a robust recorder of margin morphology and relative position of gravity and bathymetry. For this reason we applied the reference phase to the observed admittance.

In Figure A2, we have artificially shifted the gravity profile. In the previous example try 100 km to the left with respect to the bathymetric profile. This was done to simulate the possibility of incorrect bathymetry as we are investigating in this paper. The plot of admittance phase shows regularly spaced discontinuities of π and 2π . While the log amplitude of admittance component is unaffected, the 2π discontinuities arise from the artificially imposed lack of compensation.

Figure A3 displays a profile along latitude 65°S. Note that the gravity and topography maxima and minima are not coincident as would be the case for perfectly compensated and homogenous margin. The admittance amplitude of this profile does **not** decay with increasing wavenumber as we observed in Figure A1. In fact, the admittance spectrum becomes highly oscillatory at large wavenumbers and the real component becomes negative.

In Figure A4, we have modeled the gravity profile of Figure A3 using the topography of Figure A3 and adjusting the size and location of low-density bodies to simulate sediment accumulation. The objective was to show the effect of imperfect compensation in the absence of measurement noise.

We see that the spectra of the modeled profile compare well with those of the observed profile with the occurrence of π and 2π phase discontinuities in the phase component and negligible decay in the amplitude of the admittance function.

We conclude that the 2π discontinuities can be attributed to departures from the model of compensation. The average of several profiles from a continental margin will display a decay case in amplitude with wavenumber, but this is due to the averaging of irregularities in the real and imaginary spectral components and not to physical realities such as water depth.

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J. L. Labrecque, Code YSG, NASA, Washington, DC 20037.
(e-mail: jlabrecq@mtpe.hq.nasa.gov)

M.E. Ghidella, Instituto Antartico Argentino, Cerrito 12.48
1010 Buenos Aires, Argentino, (e-mail: marta@antar.org.ar)

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¹Also at the Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory of Columbia University

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USAC FLIGHTS

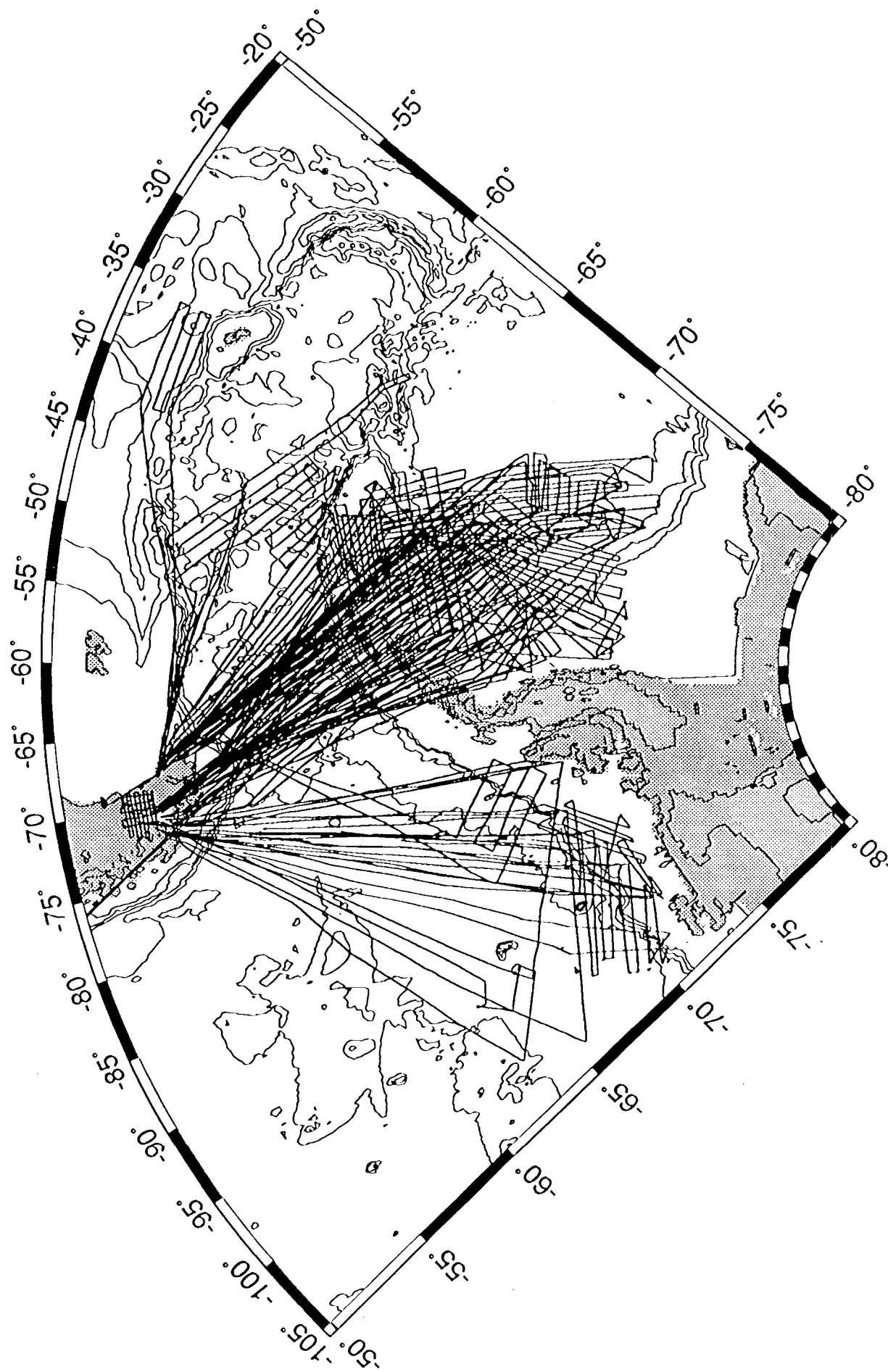


Figure 1. All USAC flights (1985-1989 field seasons). Bathymetric contours are plotted at 1000-m intervals. Antarctic Peninsula and South America are shaded.

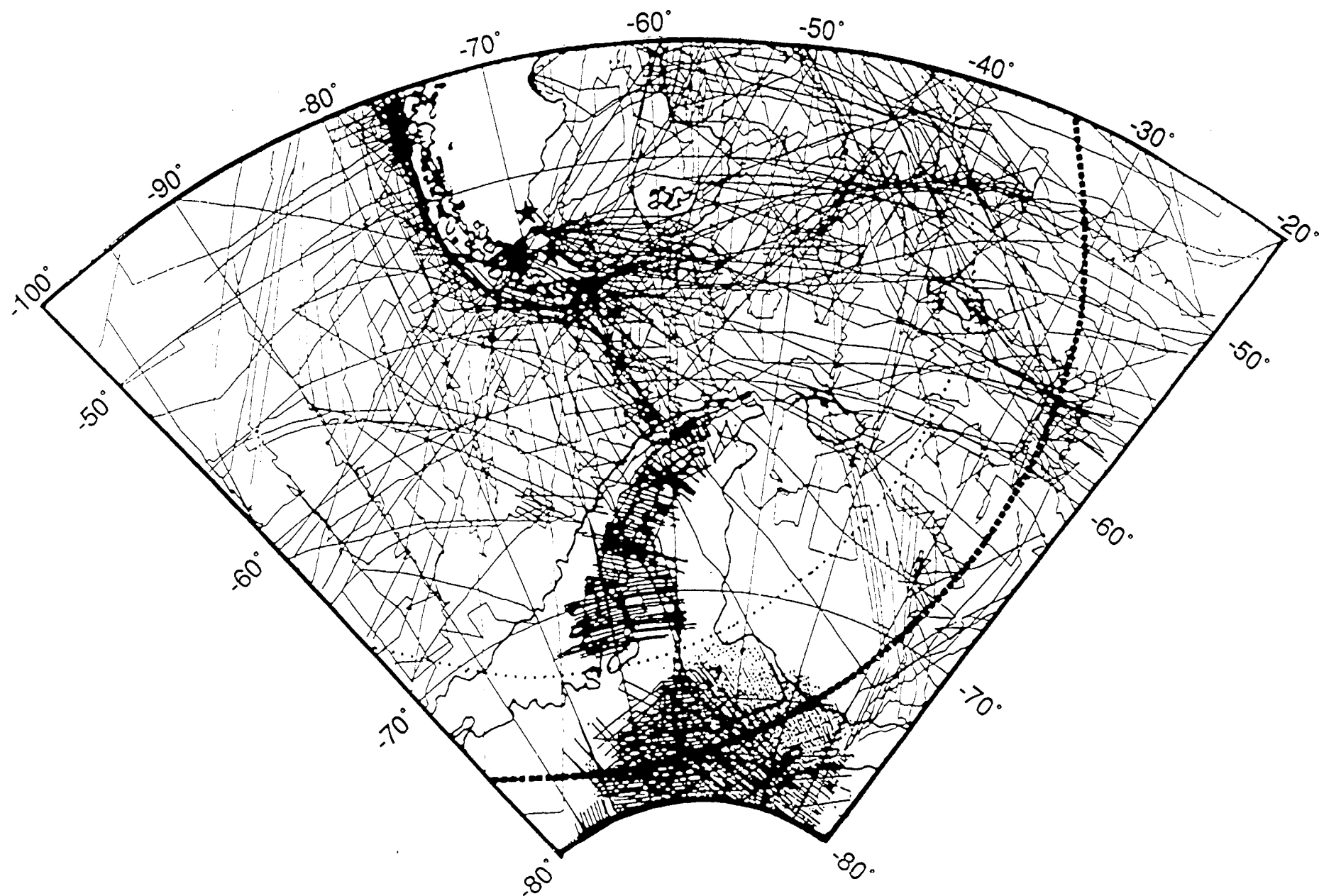


Figure 2. All geophysical data in the region prior to USAC. Compilation includes bathymetry, gravity, and magnetic measurements. Also shown as stipled lines are the 2400- and 3000-nm range limits for aircraft departing from Tierra del Fuego (star). Stipled lines in southern Weddell Sea (below 70°S) are Russian

FREE AIR GRAVITY

mGal

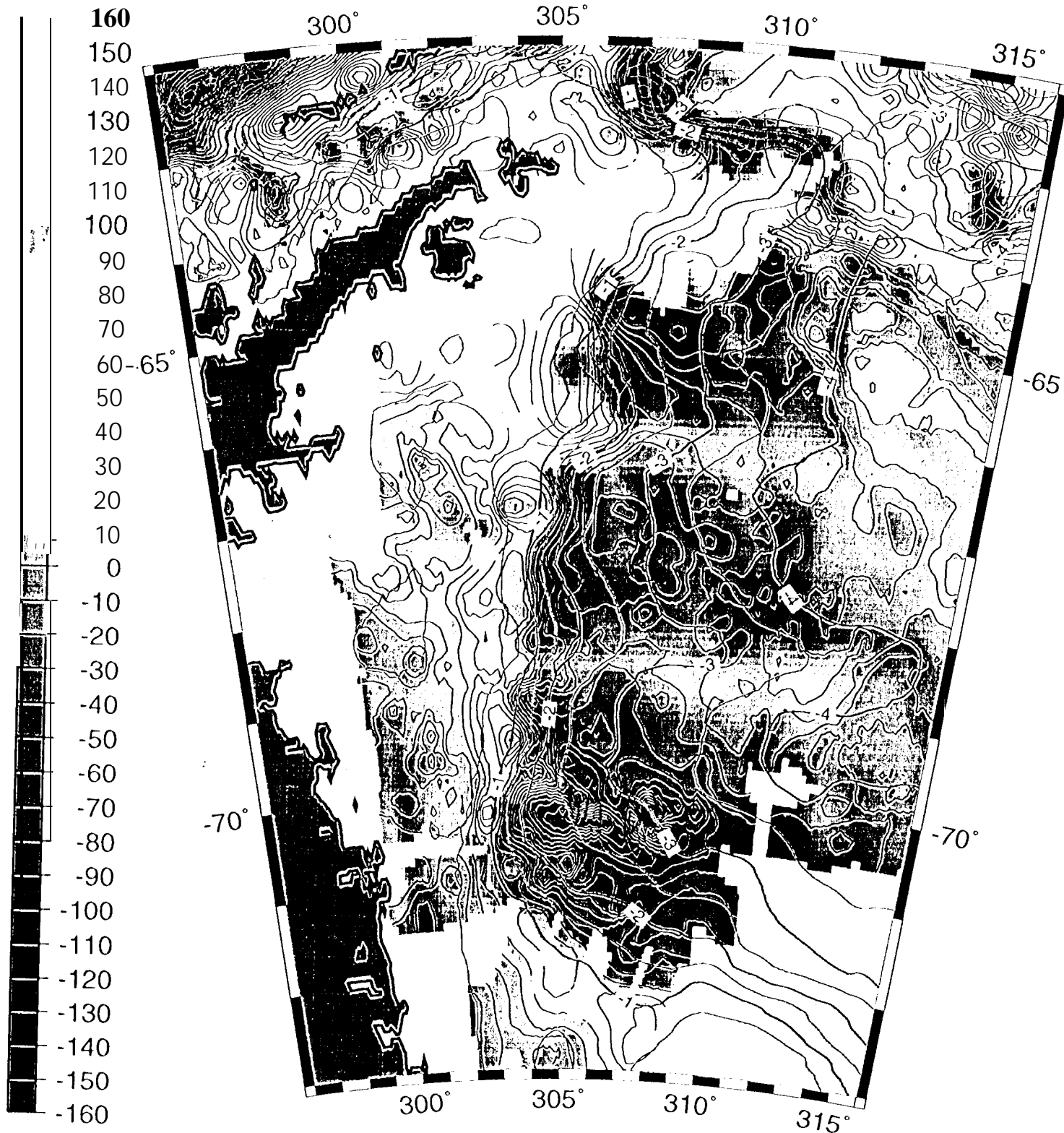


Plate 1a. Gravity field for the Weddell Basin using USAC aerogravity data base and the Geosat derived gravity field [Harby, 1988, Bell et al., 1990]. Revised bathymetry from Plate 2 is plotted in orange. Areas of no data are masked in gray. Coastline is delineated in red.

MAGNETIC ANOMALIES

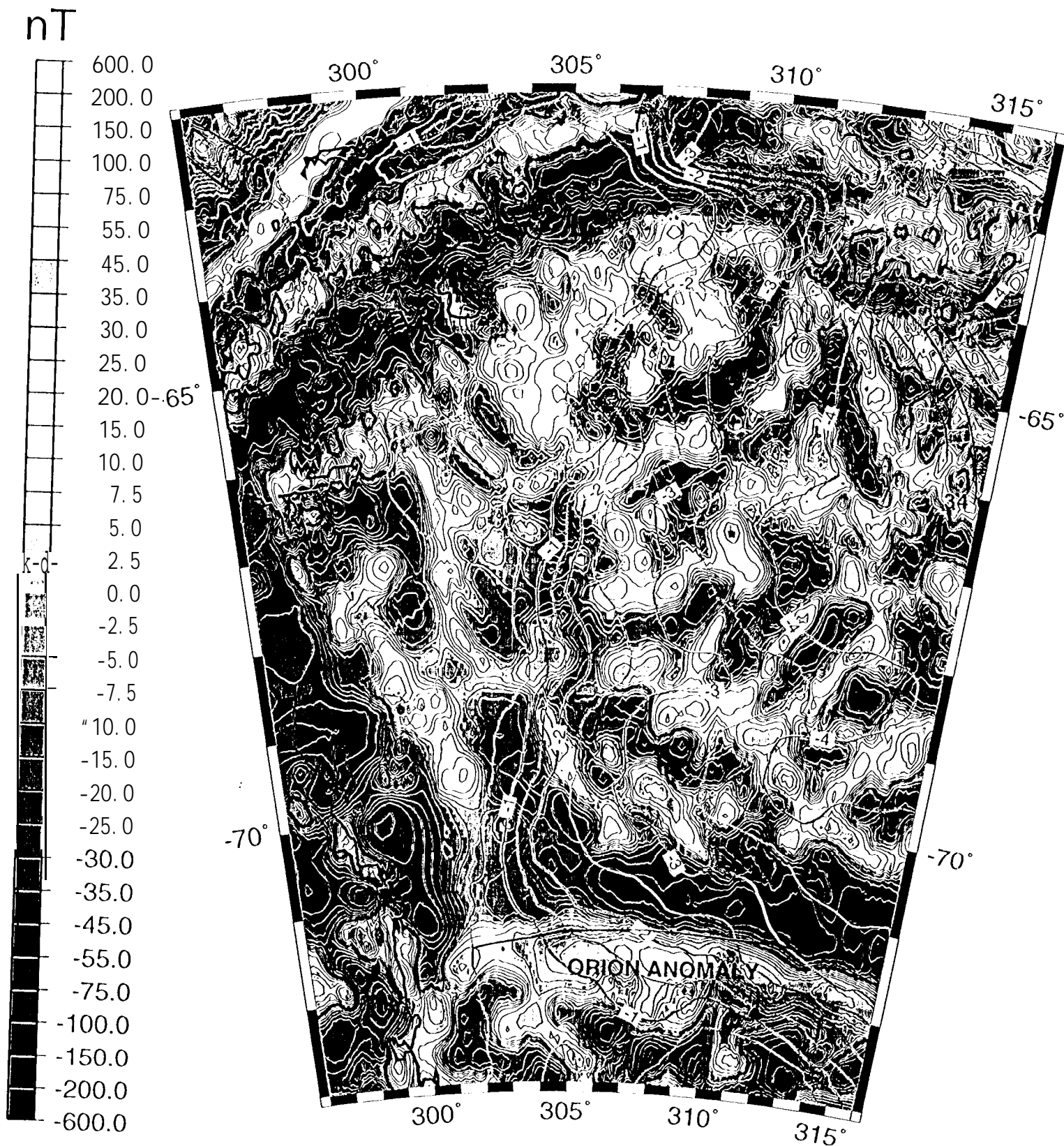


Plate 1b. Magnetic anomaly field of the Weddell Basin. Database includes all USAC flights, aerosurveys of Renner *et al.* [1985], Muslov [1980] and marine data of LaBrecque *et al.* [1986]. Revised bathymetry from Plate 2 is shown in orange. Also shown in darker red are the tectonic lineations from Cande *et al.* [1989] showing the Orion Anomaly of the southern Weddell Basin and the seafloor spreading magnetic anomalies and fracture zone trends of the northern Weddell Basin with location of anomaly 34. Coastline is delineated in red.

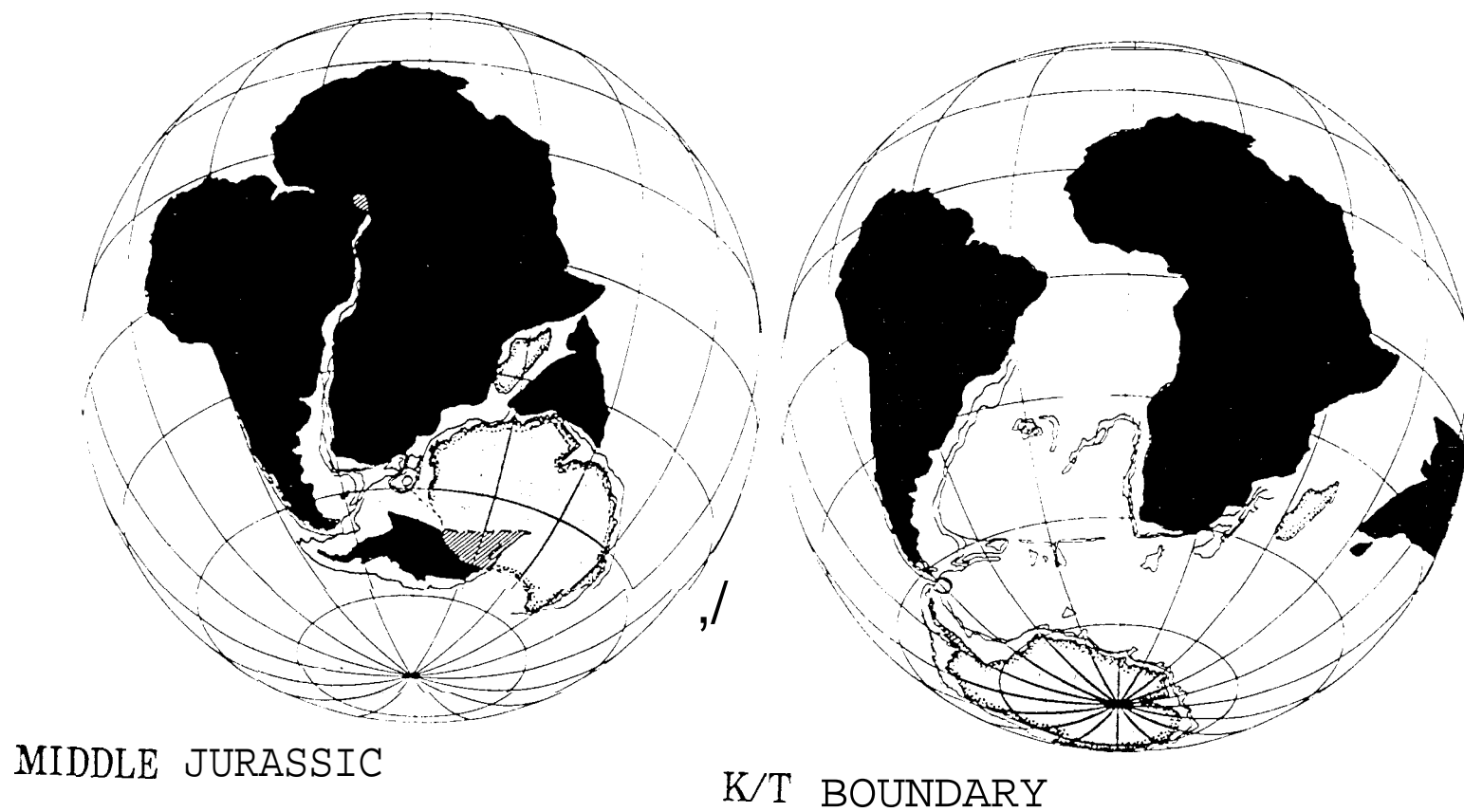


Figure 3. Reconstructions of the Weddell Basin for Jurassic and Jurassic Cretaceous Boundary based on seafloor spreading lineations in the Weddell Basin [from *LaBrecque et al.*, 1986]. Middle Jurassic reconstruction shows the Ross Sea Basin (stippled area) overlapping the East Antarctic craton. Thousand meter contour intervals of margins and relevant oceanic rises are shown where appropriate.

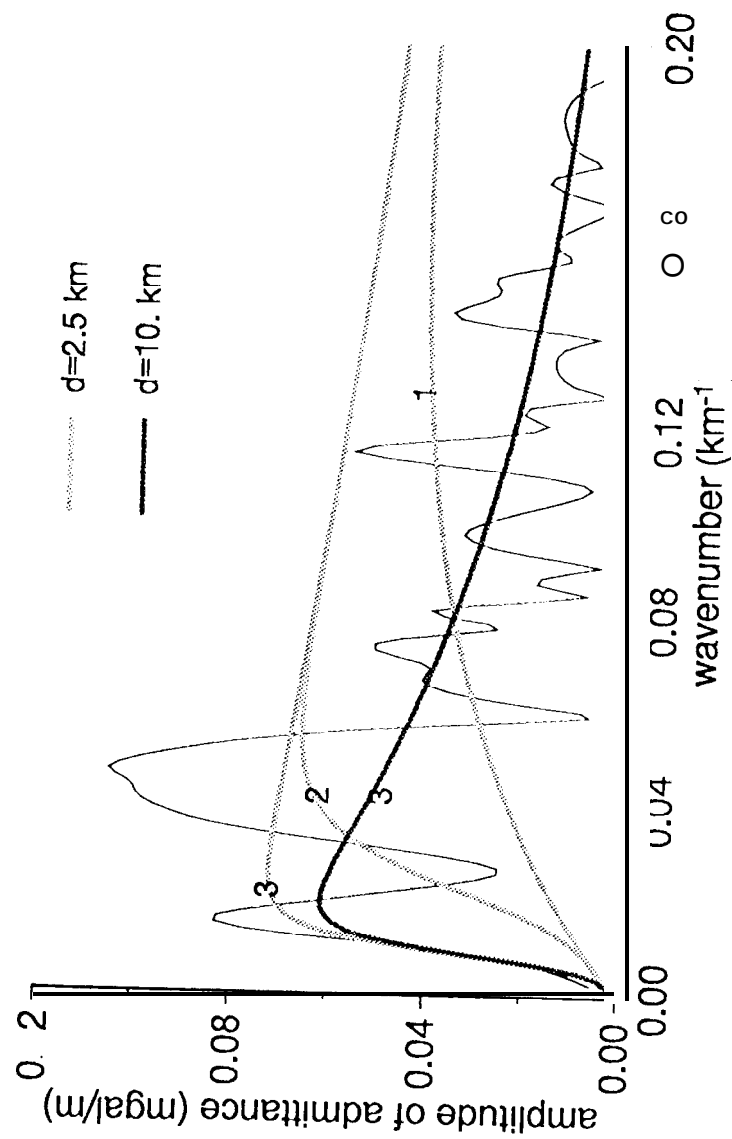


Figure 4. Log amplitude of the admittance function for northern reference area of the Weddell margin. Theoretical admittance functions for mean depths 2.5 and 10 km as indicated. Lithospheric elastic thicknesses are (1) 0 km, (2) 10 km, and (3) 40 km.

(a).

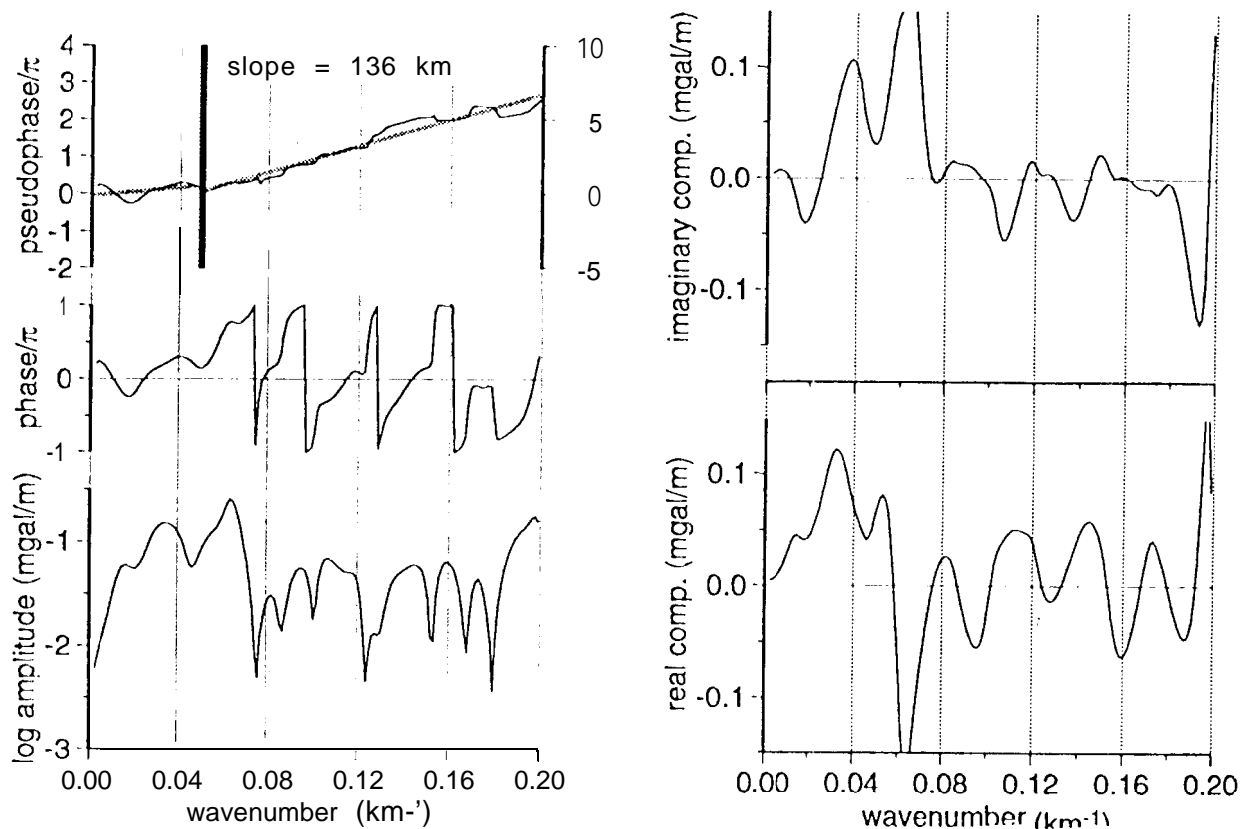


Figure 5a. Admittance function for observed profile at 65.5°S. Note the occurrence of both π and 2π discontinuities in the phase. Note also that for high wavenumbers the phase slope is 136 km, approximately the width of the shelf slope in this profile.

(b).

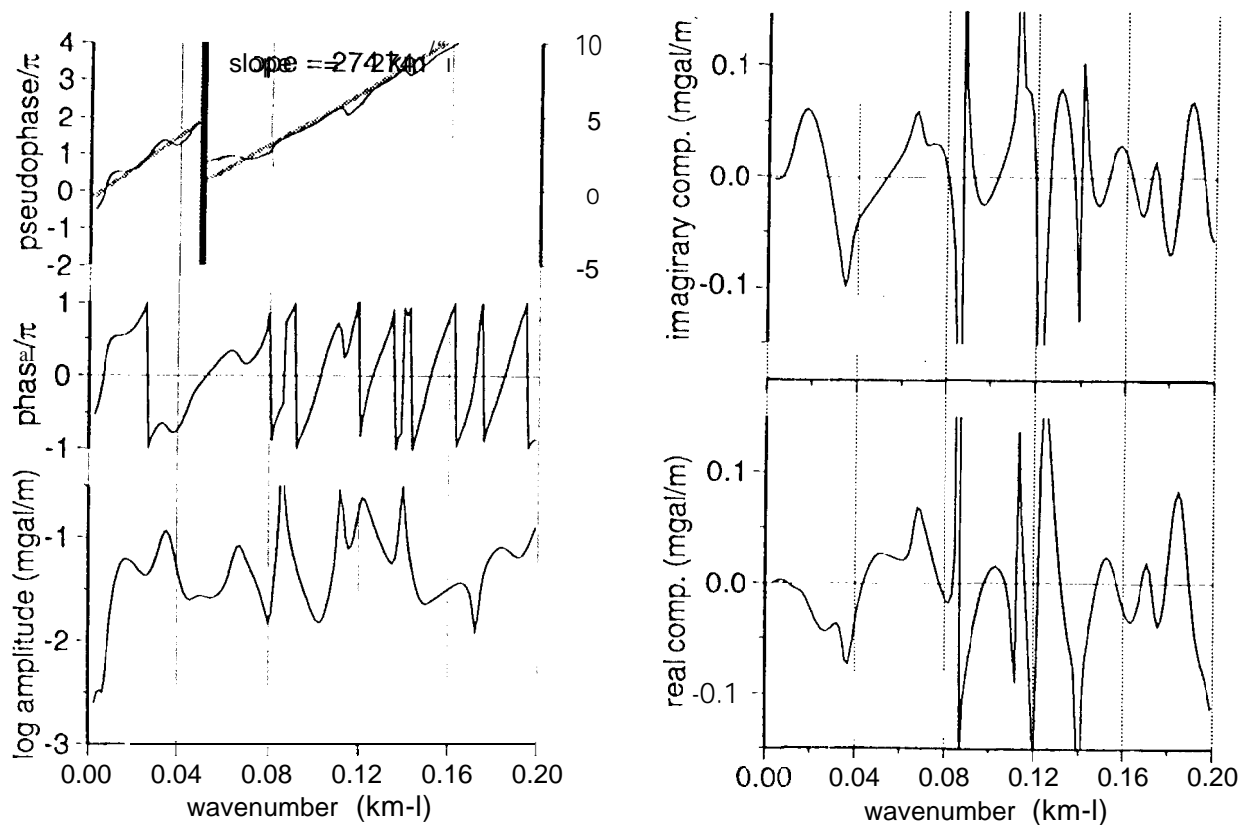


Figure 5b. Admittance function for observed profile at 68.4°S. Note the steeper phase shift at both low and high wavenumbers in the unwrapped phase for the southern margin versus the northern profile of Figure 5a.

REVISED BATHYMETRY

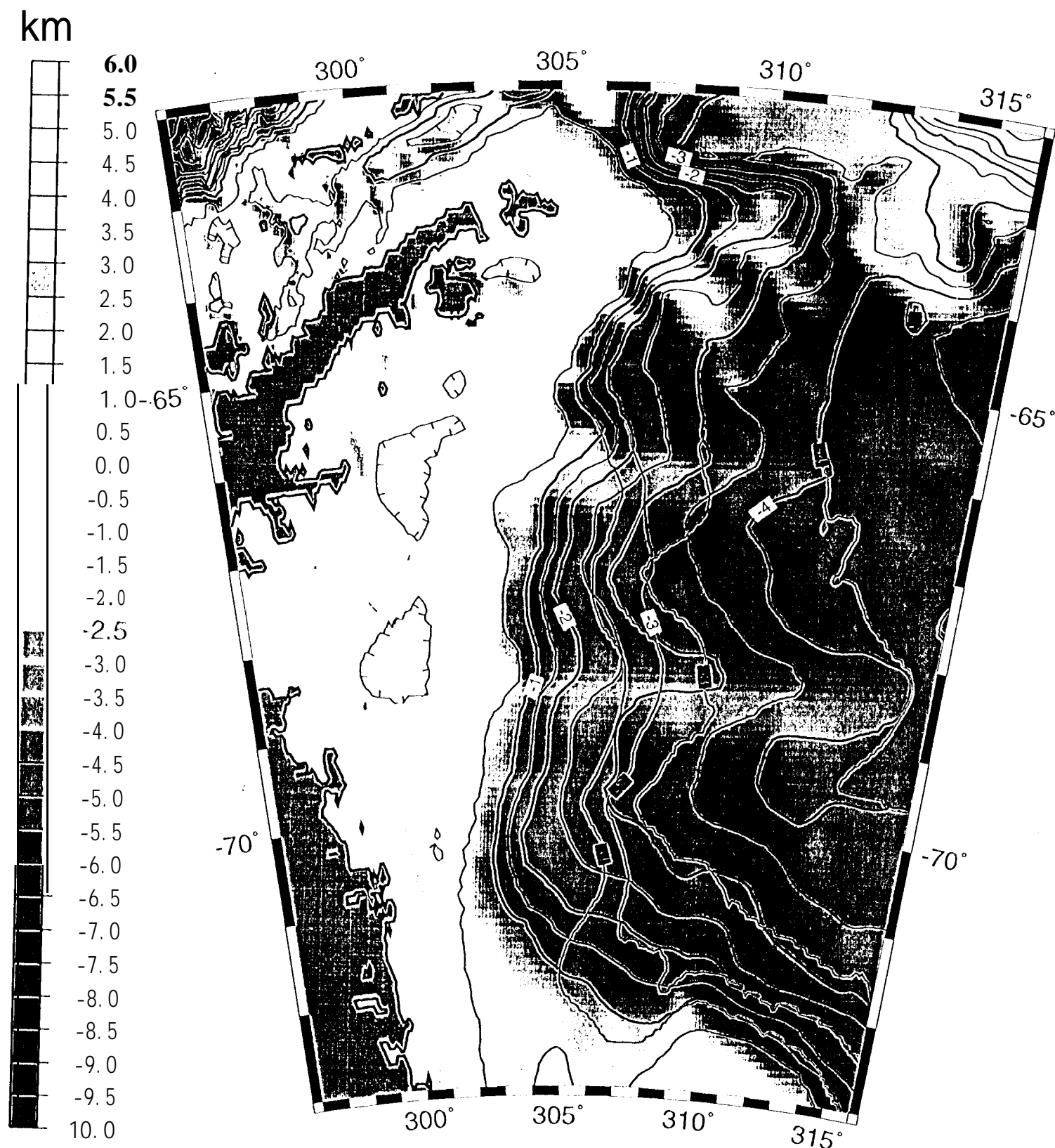


Plate 2. Revised bathymetry for the Weddell Basin derived from the admittance inversion. Older GEBCO contours are displayed in red at a 1-km contour interval over the region of revised bathymetry in the southwestern basin.

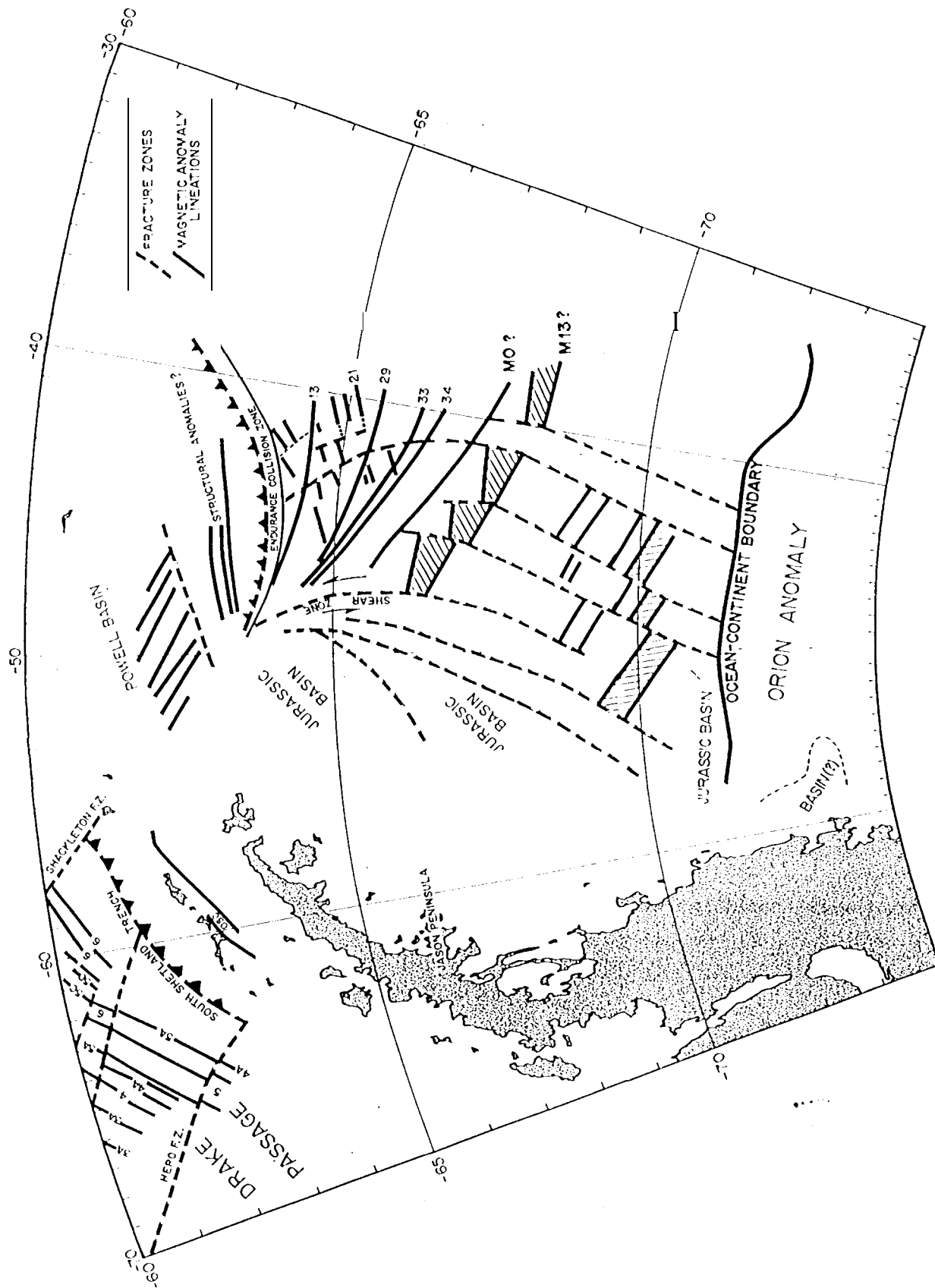


Figure 6. Tectonic map of the major isochrons, fracture zones, and magnetic lineaments.

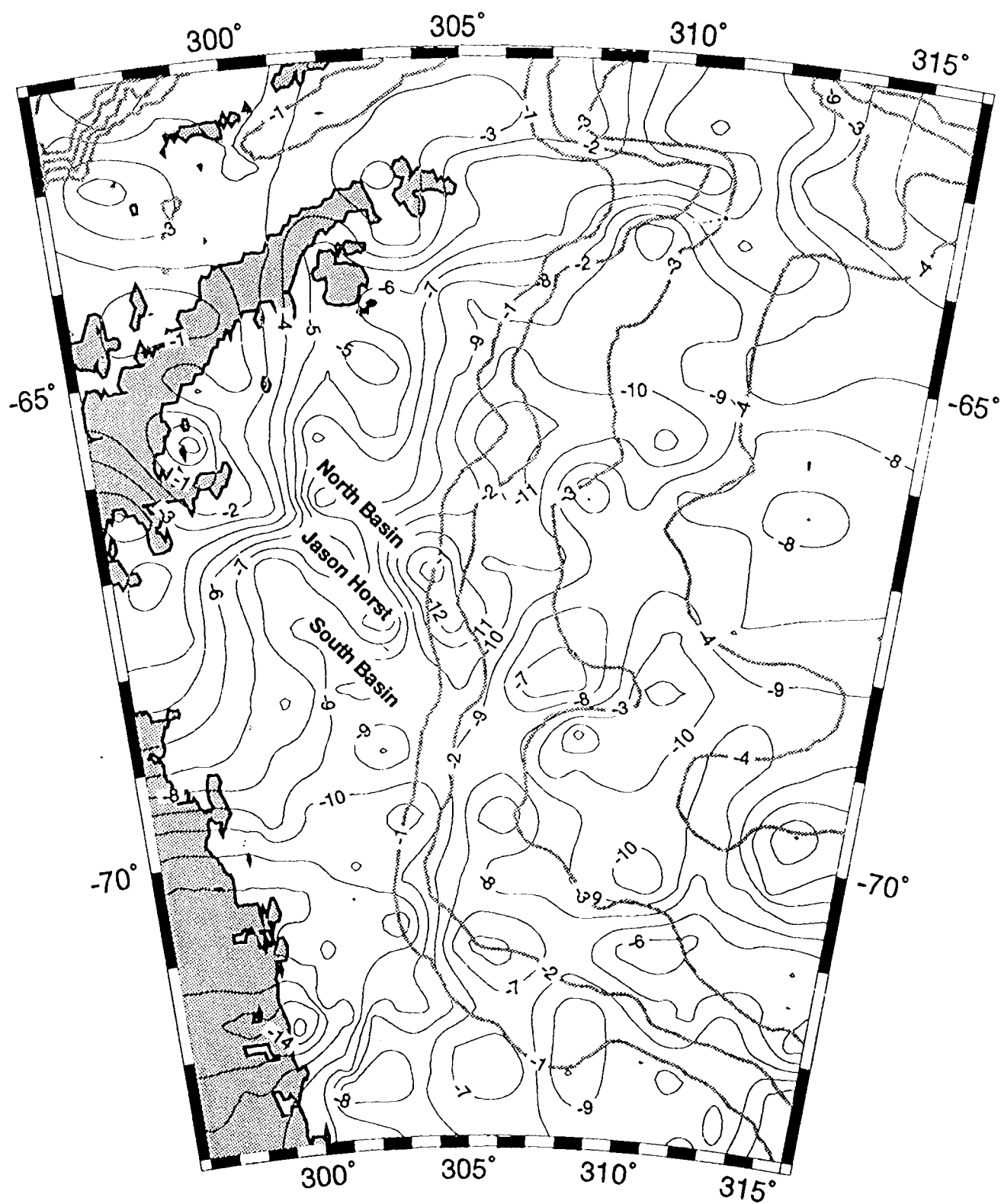


Figure 7. Depth to magnetic basement in the Weddell Basin. Contour interval is 1 km. Revised bathymetry is shown as thick grey lines at 1-km contour intervals. Magnetic basement estimates are spurious over southern Antarctic Peninsula for lack of data.

ISOPACH OF NOB

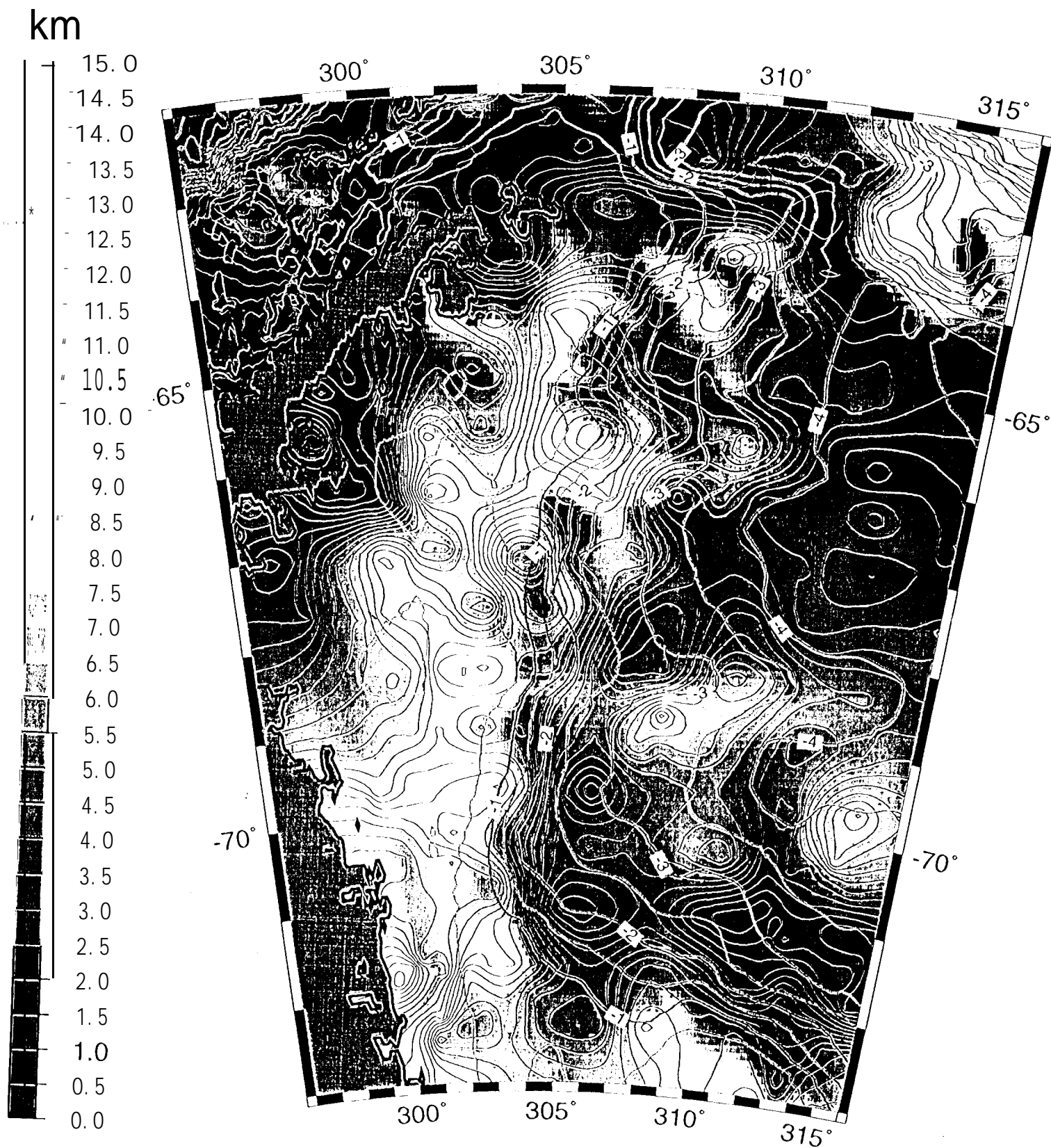


Plate 3. Estimated thickness of nonmagnetic overburden (sediment thickness) using revised bathymetry (Plate 2) and depth to magnetic basement (Figure 7). Revised bathymetry is plotted in orange at 1-km intervals. Land is masked in grey.

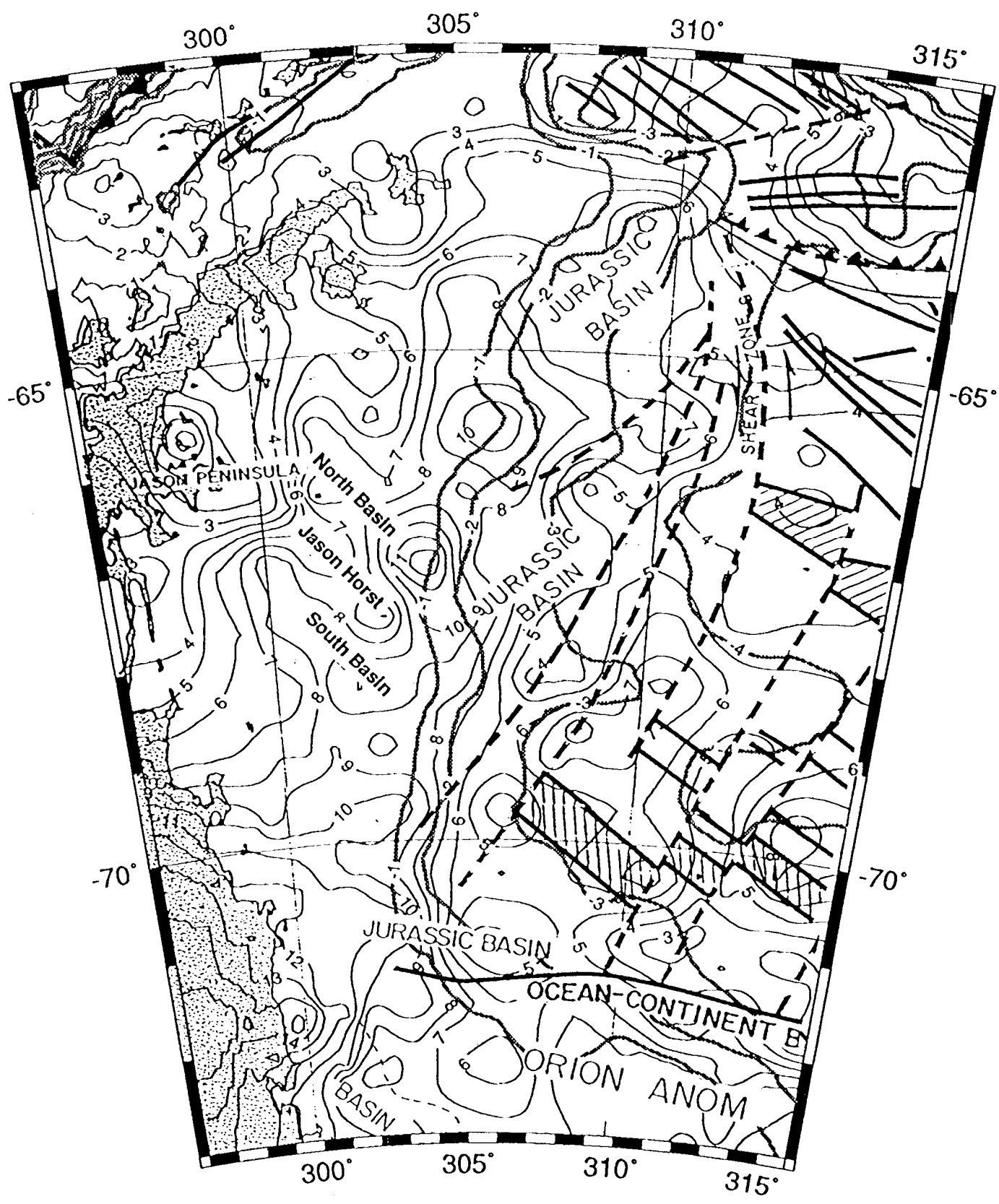


Figure 8. Same as Plate 3 with tectonic map of Figure 6 superimposed.

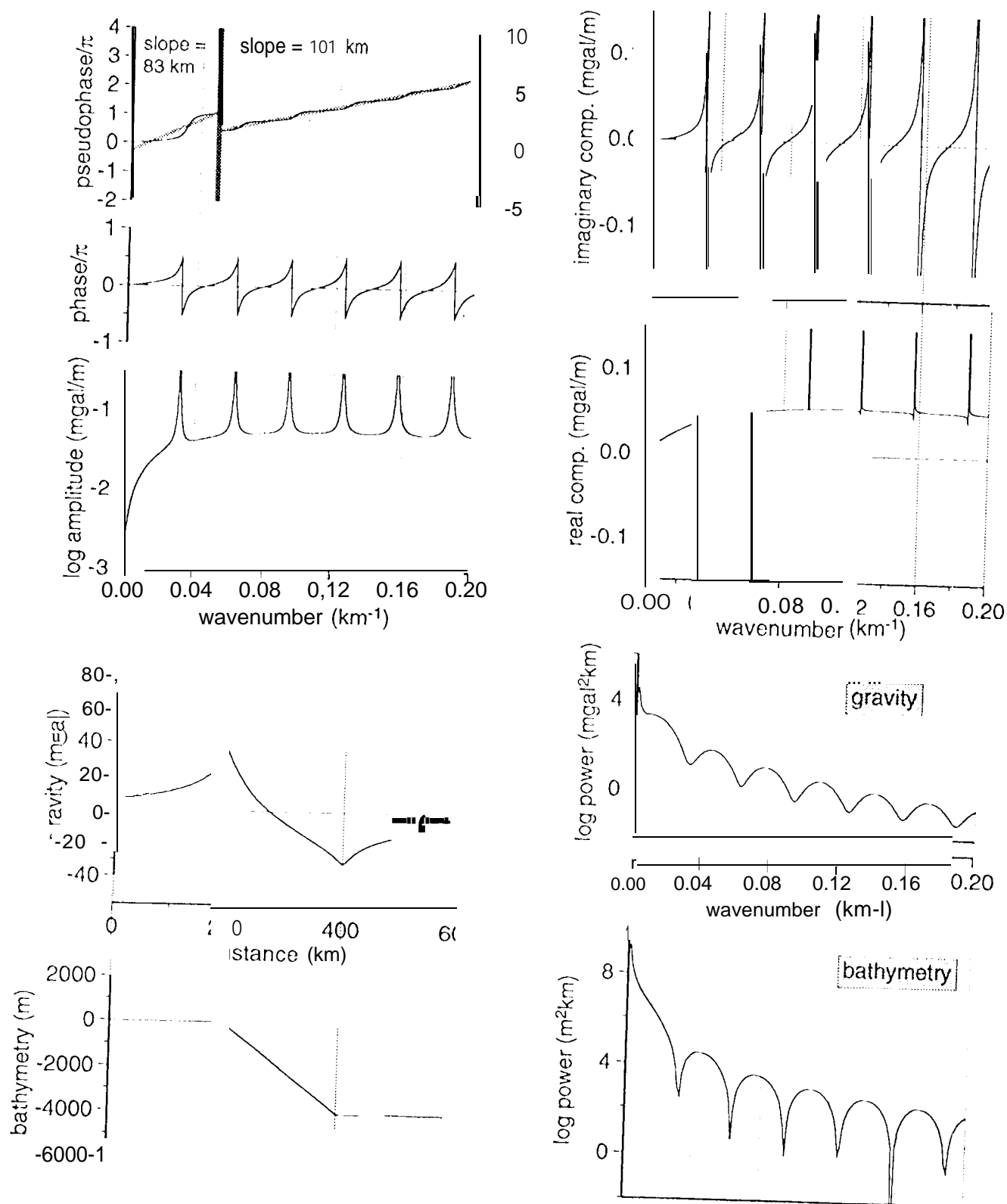


Figure A1. The analytically determined admittance for a model continental margin. Shelf slope half width is 100 km, and water depth is 4 km with local isostatic compensation.

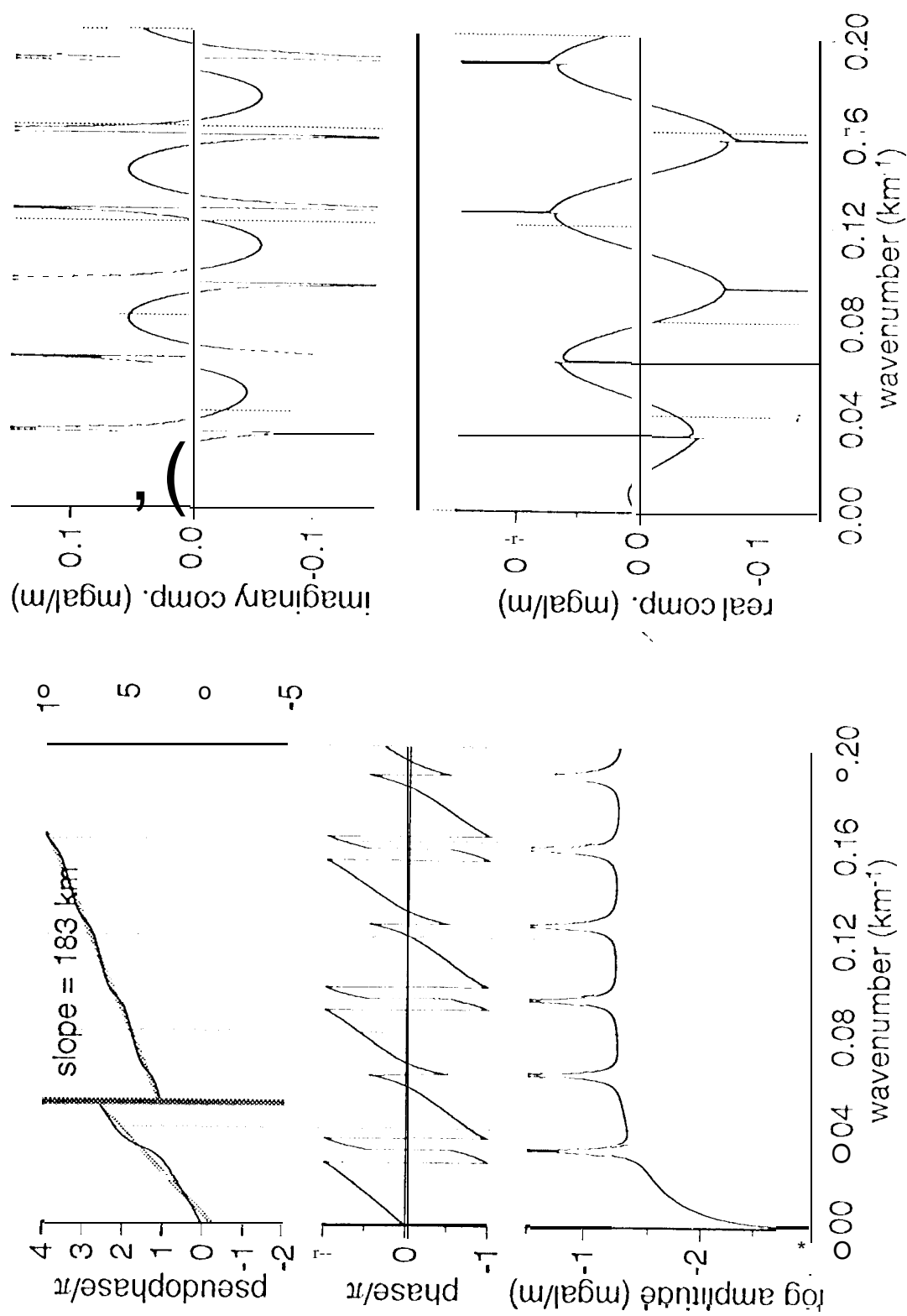


Figure A2. Admittance of the model in Figure A1 in which the gravity has been shifted 100 km to the left with respect to the topography profile. Note the appearance of 2π discontinuities in the phase and the steepening of the unwrapped phase as predicted by theory.

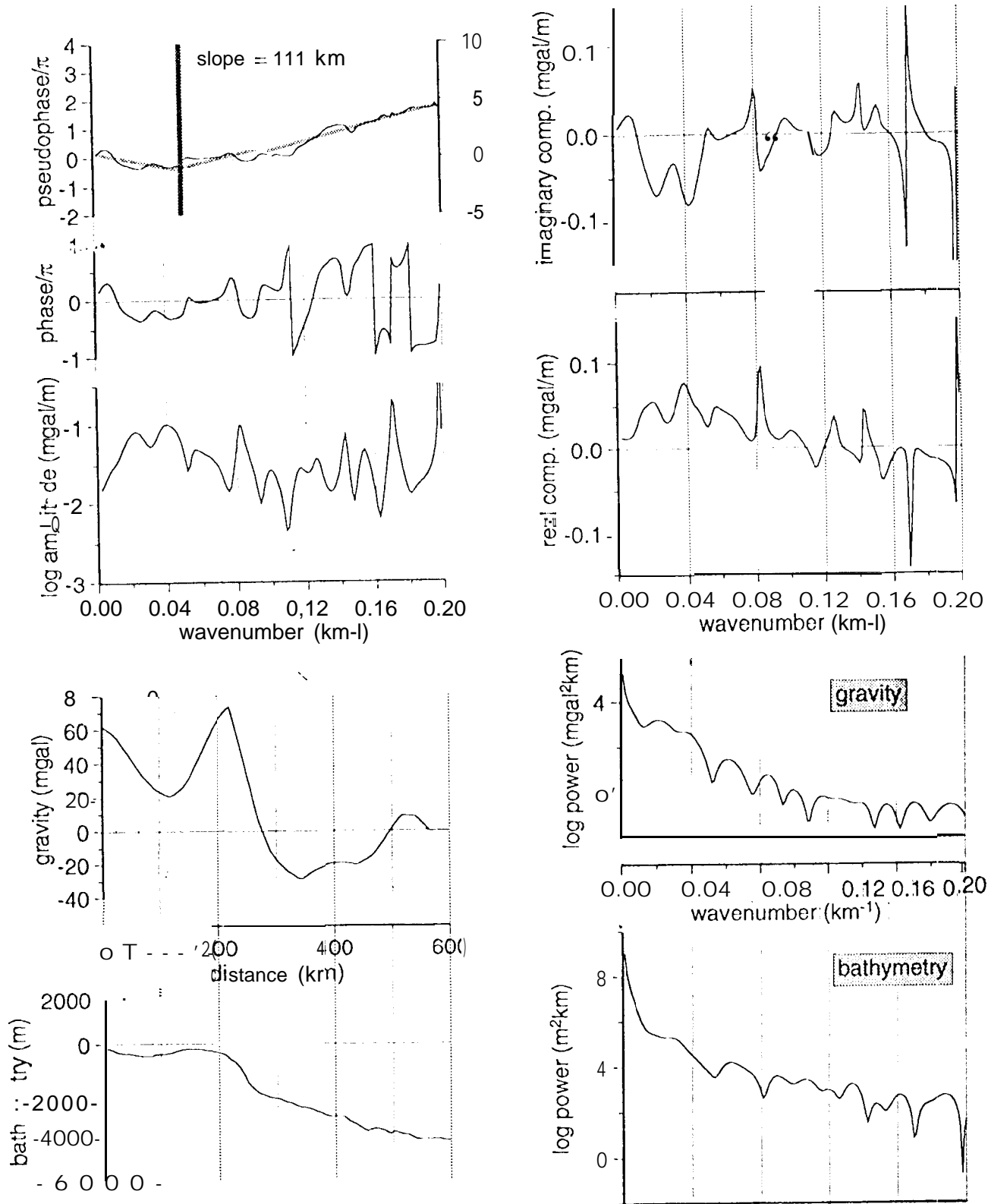


Figure A3. Admittance of a profile from 65°S latitude on the western Weddell margin.

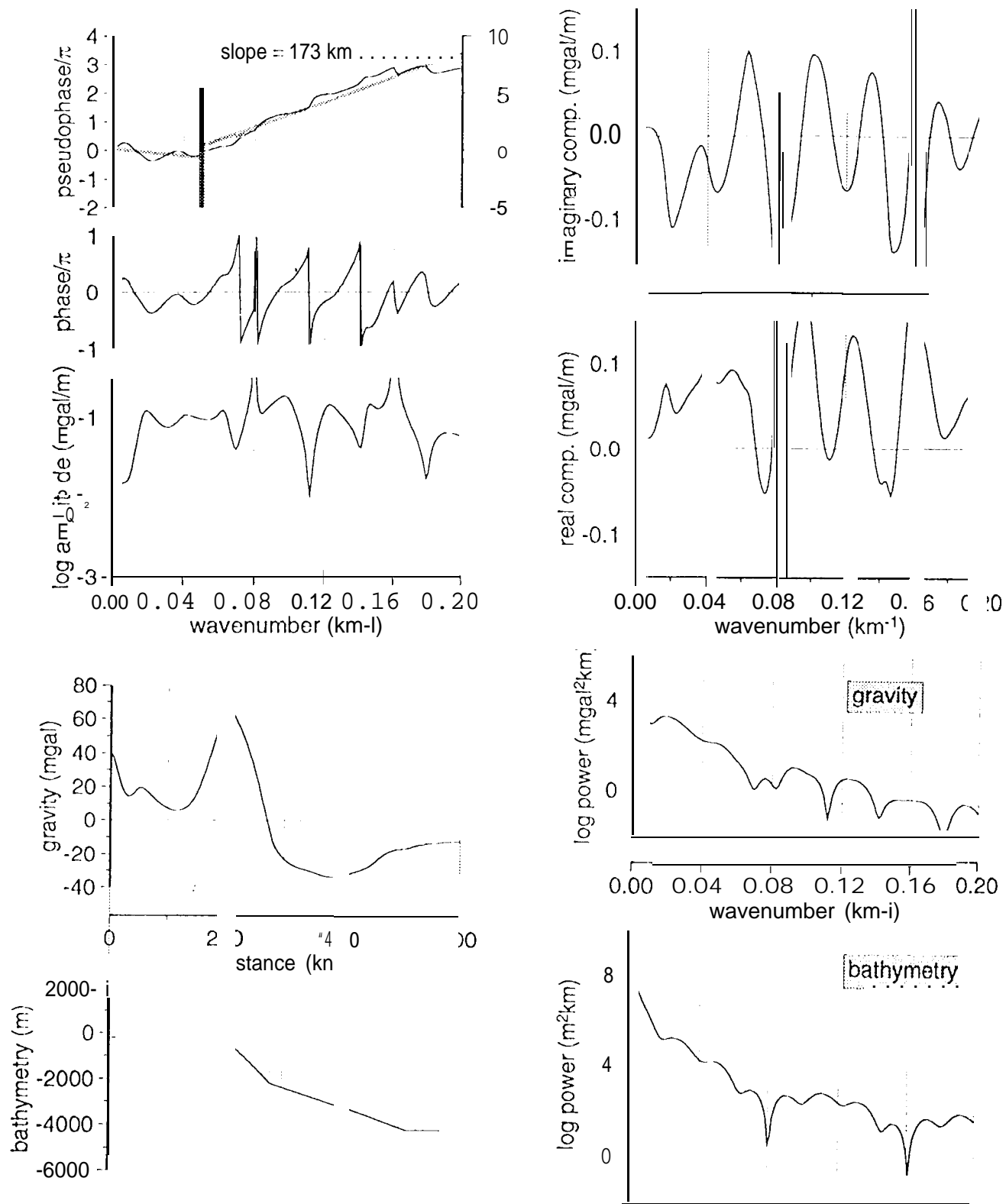


Figure A4. Admittance of a profile modeled after Figure A3 as described in the text in order to demonstrate the spectrum performance in the absence of noise.